

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Human $\gamma\delta$ T-cell receptor repertoire is shaped by influenza viruses, age and tissue compartmentalisation

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Received 1 July 2019;

Revised 16 August 2019;

Accepted 17 August 2019

doi: 10.1002/cti.1079

Clinical & Translational Immunology
2019; 8: e1079

Abstract

Background. Although $\gamma\delta$ T cells comprise up to 10% of human peripheral blood T cells, questions remain regarding their role in disease states and T-cell receptor (TCR) clonal expansions. We dissected anti-viral functions of human $\gamma\delta$ T cells towards influenza viruses and defined influenza-reactive $\gamma\delta$ TCRs in the context of $\gamma\delta$ -TCRs across the human lifespan. **Methods.** We performed ⁵¹Cr-killing assay and single-cell time-lapse live video microscopy to define mechanisms underlying $\gamma\delta$ T-cell-mediated killing of influenza-infected targets. We assessed cytotoxic profiles of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in influenza-infected patients and IFN- γ production towards influenza-infected lung epithelial cells. Using single-cell RT-PCR, we characterised paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ clonotypes for influenza-reactive $\gamma\delta$ T cells in comparison with TCRs from healthy neonates, adults, elderly donors and tissues. **Results.** We provide the first visual evidence of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell-mediated killing of influenza-infected targets and show distinct features to those reported for CD8⁺ T cells. $\gamma\delta$ T cells displayed polycytotoxic profiles in influenza-infected patients and produced IFN- γ towards influenza-infected cells. These IFN- γ -producing $\gamma\delta$ T cells were skewed towards the $\gamma 9\delta 2$ TCRs, particularly expressing the public GV9-TCR γ , capable of pairing with numerous TCR- δ chains, suggesting their significant role in $\gamma\delta$ T-cell immunity. Neonatal $\gamma\delta$ T cells displayed extensive non-

overlapping TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoires, while adults had enriched $\gamma9\delta2$ -pairings with diverse CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ regions. Conversely, the elderly showed distinct $\gamma\delta$ -pairings characterised by large clonal expansions, a profile also prominent in adult tissues. **Conclusion.** Human TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoire is shaped by age, tissue compartmentalisation and the individual's history of infection, suggesting that these somewhat enigmatic $\gamma\delta$ T cells indeed respond to antigen challenge.

Keywords: human tissues, human $\gamma\delta$ T cells, influenza virus infection, paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoire, public GV9-TCR γ clonotype

INTRODUCTION

Suggestive evidence indicates that $\gamma\delta$ T cells are involved in diverse aspects of the host response, including acute and/or chronic inflammation, effective wound healing and the killing of virus-infected, cancerous and stressed cells.¹⁻⁴ In humans, $\gamma\delta$ T cells respond to chronic viral infections, as suggested by their robust proliferative capacity during EBV reactivation,⁵ the upregulation of effector functions during HIV persistence,⁶ increased CD69 expression and expansion of $\delta1/\delta3$ T cells in kidney transplant patients with associated CMV latency.⁷ In addition, phosphoantigen-expanded human $\gamma\delta$ T cells upregulated IFN- γ and $\gamma\delta$ T cells killed cells infected with human H1N1 and H5N1 influenza viruses.⁸⁻¹¹ Whether pre-activation is a requirement for killing of influenza virus-infected cells is unknown.

The way in which human $\gamma\delta$ T populations change in diversity and prevalence with age for clinically normal, or currently challenged (by infection, cancer), individuals is far from clear. This provides a scope for analysis of clonal T-cell receptor (TCR) profiles within $\gamma\delta$ T populations. In fact, rigorous TCR analysis currently provides our most accessible 'window' for dissecting $\gamma\delta$ T-cell responses, as our present (and very limited) understanding suggests that the $\gamma\delta$ TCRs bind antigens that are not presented by classical MHC-I molecules.¹² The dissection of clonality via TCR analysis has, until recently,^{13,14} been limited by our inability to detect paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ chains directly *ex vivo* for single cells. To date, paired analyses have demonstrated signatures of innate- and adaptive-like T cells in the V $\delta2^+$ V $\gamma9^+$ and V $\delta2^+$ V $\gamma9^-$, respectively, in human peripheral and umbilical cord blood (CB).^{14,15} Analysis of TCR repertoire in chronic viral infections within

patients suffering CMV reactivation following transplantation has been performed.^{14,16} Antigen specificity and clonal expansions from both bulk analyses of $\gamma9^+$ or $\gamma9^-$ T cells,^{14,16} and from paired analyses at the single-cell level, were observed,¹⁵ suggesting that there may be specificity for the virus. It is unknown whether signatures of antigen specificity are apparent in other viral infections, particularly acute infections such as influenza virus. Moreover, how TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoires in healthy elderly adults evolve is unexplored, and there are limited data available on TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoires for lymphocytes recovered from human lymphoid and peripheral tissues.

Here, we utilise a novel multiplex single-cell RT-PCR¹³ strategy to characterise paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ clonotypes for T cells recovered directly from healthy neonates, adults and elderly donors. Different tissues were sampled, and the clonotypic analysis was also extended to T cells stimulated *in vitro* with influenza A viruses. Although (as compared to TCR $\alpha\beta$ sets) $\gamma\delta$ T cells display more limited TCR repertoires, our data demonstrate a diversity of TCR $\gamma\delta$ pairings in CB (across different $\gamma\delta$ segments and within $\gamma\delta$ segments), in adults (diverse $\gamma\delta$ TCRs within the predominant $\gamma9\delta2$ segment but limited $\gamma\delta$ segment usage), and in tissues (diverse distribution across $\gamma\delta$ segments, plus clonal expansions within the segments). Additionally, older adults show individually skewed TCR $\gamma\delta$ profiles, characterised by the predominant selection of largely expanded TCR $\gamma\delta$ clones within selected $\gamma\delta$ segments. In response to influenza-infected targets, $\gamma\delta$ T cells elicit effective anti-viral functions such as killing and IFN- γ production. These influenza-specific IFN- γ -producing $\gamma\delta$ T cells display the enrichment of $\gamma9\delta2$ sets and the selection of public TCR $\gamma\delta$ clonotypes across different donors. Our study is thus the first to analyse $\gamma\delta$ TCR clonotype diversity

from subjects ranging in age from the neonates to the elderly. It seems that that TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoires vary with age, tissue compartmentalisation and prior infection suggesting that, as with the TCR $\alpha\beta$ subsets, the varied prominence of particular clonotypes is shaped by an individual's history of antigenic exposure.

RESULTS

Kinetics of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell-mediated killing of influenza virus-infected monocytes

As the efficacy of human $\gamma\delta$ T cells to kill influenza-infected targets is far from clear, we assessed the mechanism of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell-mediated killing using both the classic ^{51}Cr -release killing assay (Figure 1a, b) and a single-cell assessment using time-lapse live video microscopy^{17–19} (Figure 1c, d, Supplementary figure 1). Our data clearly demonstrated that human $\gamma\delta$ T cells obtained from adult donors could efficiently kill influenza H1N1/PR8-infected THP-1 monocytic targets directly *ex vivo*, as compared to uninfected controls (Figure 1a, b). Our subsequent in-depth assessment of the mechanism of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell-mediated killing of PR8-infected THP-1 cells at 40 \times magnification revealed that $\gamma\delta$ T cells were capable of recognising target antigen, as demonstrated by increase in intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration (as determined by Fluo-4 intensity; Figure 1c) in an average of 105 s after cell contact (Figure 1d, $n = 78$). Overall, the $\gamma\delta$ T cells demonstrated an average of two Ca^{2+} fluxes, while in synapse with each target cell (Mean 2.04, $n = 96$; Figure 1e). We report for the first time that $\gamma\delta$ T cells were capable of synapse formation and delivery of perforin to the virally infected target cells and target cell membrane blebbing occurred, indicative of morphologically distinct apoptotic target cell death (Figure 1c). In previous studies, uptake of PI through perforin pores into the cytosol has been used as a marker of perforin delivery to the target cells.¹⁹ Here, we report that the time from antigen recognition, as denoted by the first Ca^{2+} flux in the $\gamma\delta$ T cells, to the time of PI blush entering the target cell cytosol was an average of 276 s (4.6 min, $n = 7$; Figure 1). This time to degranulate is slower than has been previously reported for human CD8 $^{+}$ T cells and NK cell of ~ 100 s.¹⁸ Once the T cell has killed, it detaches from the dying target, and a high concentration of PI could be seen entering the

target cell as it enters secondary necrosis (Figure 1c). The average time between the first T-cell Ca^{2+} flux to influenza-infected target cell blebbing (Figure 1f) and Ca^{2+} flux to T-cell detachment (known as synapse dwell time; Figure 1g) was comparable at 1000 s (mean = 1011 s, $n = 31$ and mean = 953 s, $n = 22$, respectively), across three independent human donors.

As shown in the representative montage of live cell imaging (Figure 1c) and the corresponding video (Supplementary figure 1), the kinetics of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell-mediated killing only slightly vary to those previously reported in studies of human CD8 $^{+}$ T-cell and NK-cell killing where a single Ca^{2+} flux was shown to be sufficient to trigger degranulation.¹⁸ So while the $\gamma\delta$ T cells do take longer to degranulate than CD8 $^{+}$ T cells, the synapse dwell time of 16.4 min is consistent with previous reports on the kinetics previously shown in human CD8 $^{+}$ T cells (~ 14 min) and human NK cells (~ 18 min)¹⁷ (Figure 1g).

Taken together, we provide the first visual evidence of the mechanism underlying $\gamma\delta$ T-cell-mediated killing of influenza-infected monocytic targets.

V $\delta 2^{+}$ T cells display broadly cytolytic profiles in influenza virus-infected donors *ex vivo*

To further dissect the killing capacity of human $\gamma\delta$ T cells directly *ex vivo*, we examined co-expression of cytolytic molecules Gzm A, B, K, M and perforin in patients naturally infected with influenza B viruses (IBV). An initial analysis of Gzm and perforin expression within the total $\gamma\delta$ T-cell pool demonstrated high levels of Gzm A, M and perforin, with Gzm K being significantly lower in both healthy and IBV-infected adults (Figure 2; healthy adults, $P < 0.001$ Gzm A, M and perforin, $P < 0.01$ Gzm B; IBV-infected patients $P < 0.05$ Gzm A, M and perforin). In contrast, $\gamma\delta$ T cells within the CB lacked Gzm A, B and K expression, with only Gzm M being moderately expressed ($\sim 15\%$, $n = 3$; Figure 2a). As V $\delta 2^{+}$ and V $\delta 2^{-}$ TCR $\gamma\delta^{+}$ subsets have previously shown to have differential functional capacities and phenotypic profiles,²⁰ we further segregated Gzm and perforin staining into V $\delta 2^{+}$ and V $\delta 2^{-}$ TCR $\gamma\delta^{+}$ subsets. Indeed, our frequency analyses of individual single cytotoxic molecules in healthy adults verified the previous findings and showed that the V $\delta 2^{+}$ T cells had significantly higher

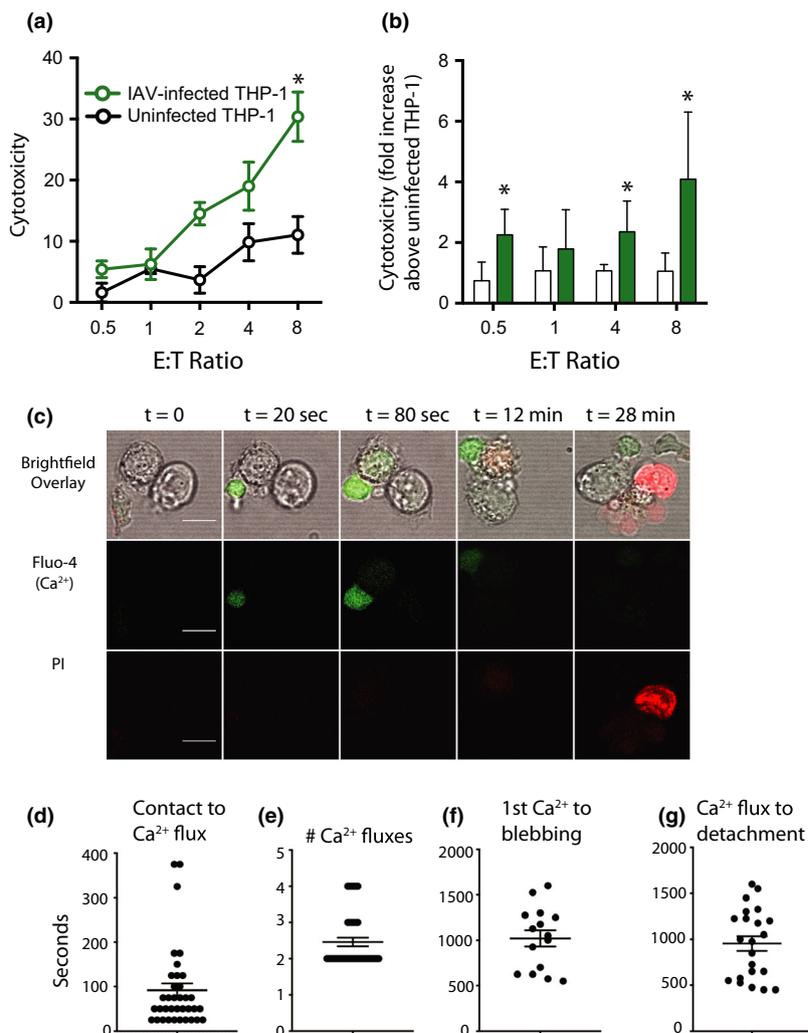


Figure 1. Human $\gamma\delta$ T cells kill influenza virus-infected monocytic cells via apoptosis. **(a)** *Ex vivo* killing capacity of sort-purified, human $\gamma\delta$ T cells assayed at multiple E:T ratios in a ⁵¹Cr-release assay using influenza A virus-infected THP-1 cells (MOI 5). Representative plot from one donor assayed in triplicate, where the green line indicates $\gamma\delta$ T cells incubated with IAV-infected THP-1 and the black line corresponds to uninfected THP-1 cells. The SEM is shown, $P = 0.001$, two-tailed t -test. Data are representative of three experiments. **(b)** The fold-change of specific lysis over uninfected THP-1. Pooled data from three donors assayed in triplicate, (mean \pm SD, $P < 0.001$ (0.5:1), $P = 0.002$ (4:1), $P = 0.001$ (8:1), multiple t -tests. **(c)** Time-lapse microscopy of fluo-4-AM labelled $\gamma\delta$ T cells killing IAV-infected THP-1 targets in the presence of 100 μ M PI. Images were acquired every 10 s and show fluo-4(green)/PI(red)/brightfield overlay, with the single red and green channels in panels 2 and 3. Image is representative of 78 conjugates filmed. Scale bar = 10 μ m. Quantitation includes the following: **(d)** the time from first membrane contact to calcium flux, **(e)** the overall number of Ca²⁺ fluxes, **(f)** the time from 1st Ca²⁺ flux to target membrane blebbing and **(g)** the time from 1st Ca²⁺ flux to T-cell detachment from the target cell. Panels **(d–g)** show mean \pm SEM of pooled individual data from three human donors across three experiments.

frequency of all molecules with the exception of Gzm B than $V\delta 2^-$ TCR $\gamma\delta^+$ cells (Figure 2b; $P =$ Gzm A, K, M = 0.008, perforin = 0.023). These data suggest that $V\delta 2^+$ T cells are superior in terms of polycytotoxic capability.

We thus subsequently analysed co-expression of multiple cytolytic molecules Gzm A, B, K, M and perforin $V\delta 2^+$ and $V\delta 2^-$ TCR $\gamma\delta^+$ subsets for both healthy donors ($n = 8$) and individuals naturally

infected with IBV ($n = 4$; Figure 2c–f). Strikingly, when we visualised the co-expression patterns across five cytotoxic molecules (polyfunctional potential of $\gamma\delta$ T cells), $V\delta 2^-$ TCR $\gamma\delta^+$ T cells in IBV-infected individuals had highly polycytotoxic profiles (Figure 2c) in comparison with healthy adult donors, which displayed a higher proportion of $V\delta 2^-$ TCR $\gamma\delta^+$ T cells lacking Gzms and perforin ($GzmA^-B^-K^-M^-Perf^-$ cells; Figure 2e; $P = 0.049$).

However, the polyfunctional polycytotoxic profiles within $V\delta 2^+$ T cells were comparable across IBV-infected and healthy donors (Figure 2d).

In summary, although $V\delta 2^+$ T cells display a highly potent cytotoxic potential in healthy and IBV-infected donors, $V\delta 2^-$ TCR $\gamma\delta^+$ T cells upregulate their cytotoxic profiles in IBV-infected in a way that the majority of cells express a combination of 4–5 cytotoxic molecules. The key question arises whether killing of influenza-infected targets is mediated via specific TCR $\gamma\delta$ clonotypes or, alternatively, via all the available TCR $\gamma\delta$ clonotypes.

Potent upregulation of IFN- γ by $\gamma\delta$ T cells following exposure to influenza-infected targets

As it is technically difficult to sequence TCRs of $\gamma\delta$ T cells killing influenza-infected targets, we further identified influenza-specific $\gamma\delta$ T cells via IFN- γ production in an *in vitro* assay using influenza virus-infected lung epithelial cell line (A549) and peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) co-culture system (Figure 3a).²¹ Infection of the A549 cells with influenza A (PR8-IAV) and B viruses for 10 h resulted in an infection rate of ~85% (Figure 3b; 78–90% $n = 5$), measured by intracellular staining with anti-influenza nucleoprotein. In healthy adults, we observed a significant upregulation of IFN- γ production by $\gamma\delta$ T cells after co-culture of PBMCs with IAV-infected A549s, 15.7-fold above co-culture with uninfected A549 cells (mean 4.7%; Figure 3c, e, $P < 0.01$, $n = 16$). Furthermore, ~80% of IFN- γ -producing $\gamma\delta$ T cells expressed Gzm B (Supplementary figure 2), suggesting that the majority of influenza-reactive $\gamma\delta$ T cells have the potential to kill IAV-infected target cells. Minimal IFN- γ production towards IAV-infected A549 cells was detected in CB $\gamma\delta$ T cells (Figure 3c, e). In contrast, CB-derived NK cells could respond to IAV-infected A549 cells by secreting IFN- γ (Figure 3d). These data suggest that in the context of IAV infection, neonatal $\gamma\delta$ T cells have a naïve-like functional profile, which is supported phenotypically by their predominant lack of cytotoxic molecule expression *ex vivo* (Figure 2a). Co-culture of adult PBMCs with IBV (B/Massachusetts/02/2012)-infected A549s resulted in comparable upregulation of IFN- γ production towards IAV (Figure 3e) and IBV (Supplementary figure 3) infected by adult $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Together, our data show that adult peripheral blood $\gamma\delta$ T

cells display potent heterosubtypic immunity against influenza A and B viruses.

To understand the mechanisms underlying the activation of $\gamma\delta$ T cells during influenza virus infection, we assessed the role of soluble inflammatory mediators released during influenza virus infection of A549 cells on the activation of $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Supernatants were collected from PBMCs co-cultured with IAV-infected A549 cells or uninfected controls. These supernatants were then transferred to autologous PBMCs, followed by the assessment of IFN- γ and TNF expression (Figure 3f). Autologous PBMC stimulated with supernatants from IAV-infected A549:PBMC co-cultures had significant reduction in IFN- γ production when compared to the original PBMCs co-cultured with IAV-infected A549s (Figure 3g, h, $n = 6$, $P = 0.026$), indicating that inflammatory mediators alone are insufficient at inducing $\gamma\delta$ T-cell activation. To dissect the requirement of a particular cell subset for mediating $\gamma\delta$ T-cell activation, we depleted monocytes from our co-culture system, as monocytes were previously involved in $\gamma\delta$ T-cell stimulation during dengue infections.²² Depletion of CD14⁺ monocytes from PBMCs co-cultured with IAV-infected A549s significantly diminished IFN- γ production ($P = 0.0026$; Figure 3i, j), suggesting that monocytes mediate, partially, $\gamma\delta$ T-cell IFN- γ production towards IAV-infected lung epithelial cells.

Taken together, we demonstrate that $\gamma\delta$ T cells can potently upregulate IFN- γ during heterosubtypic influenza infection and such activation depends, at least partially, on monocytes is not modulated by soluble mediators derived from *in vitro* IAV infection of lung epithelial cells.

$\gamma 9\delta 2$ T cells are the major IFN- γ producers during influenza virus infection

To probe $\gamma\delta$ TCRs activated following influenza virus infection, we paired an influenza virus-infected lung epithelial and PBMC co-culture system (Figure 3a)²¹ with an IFN- γ cytokine capture assay to isolate influenza-reactive $\gamma\delta$ T cells for paired single-cell TCR analyses²³ (Figure 4a, Supplementary figure 4).

Paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ analyses from IFN- γ^+ cells stimulated with IAV-infected A549 and PBMCs (Figure 4a, $n = 3$ adult donors) revealed that IFN- γ^+ $\gamma\delta$ T cells consisted almost exclusively of $\gamma 9\delta 2$ cells (90.3%; Figure 4b, d, Supplementary table 5). The majority of IFN- γ -negative TCRs were $V\delta 2$ paired with a broad range of $V\gamma$ -chains ($V\gamma 3$,

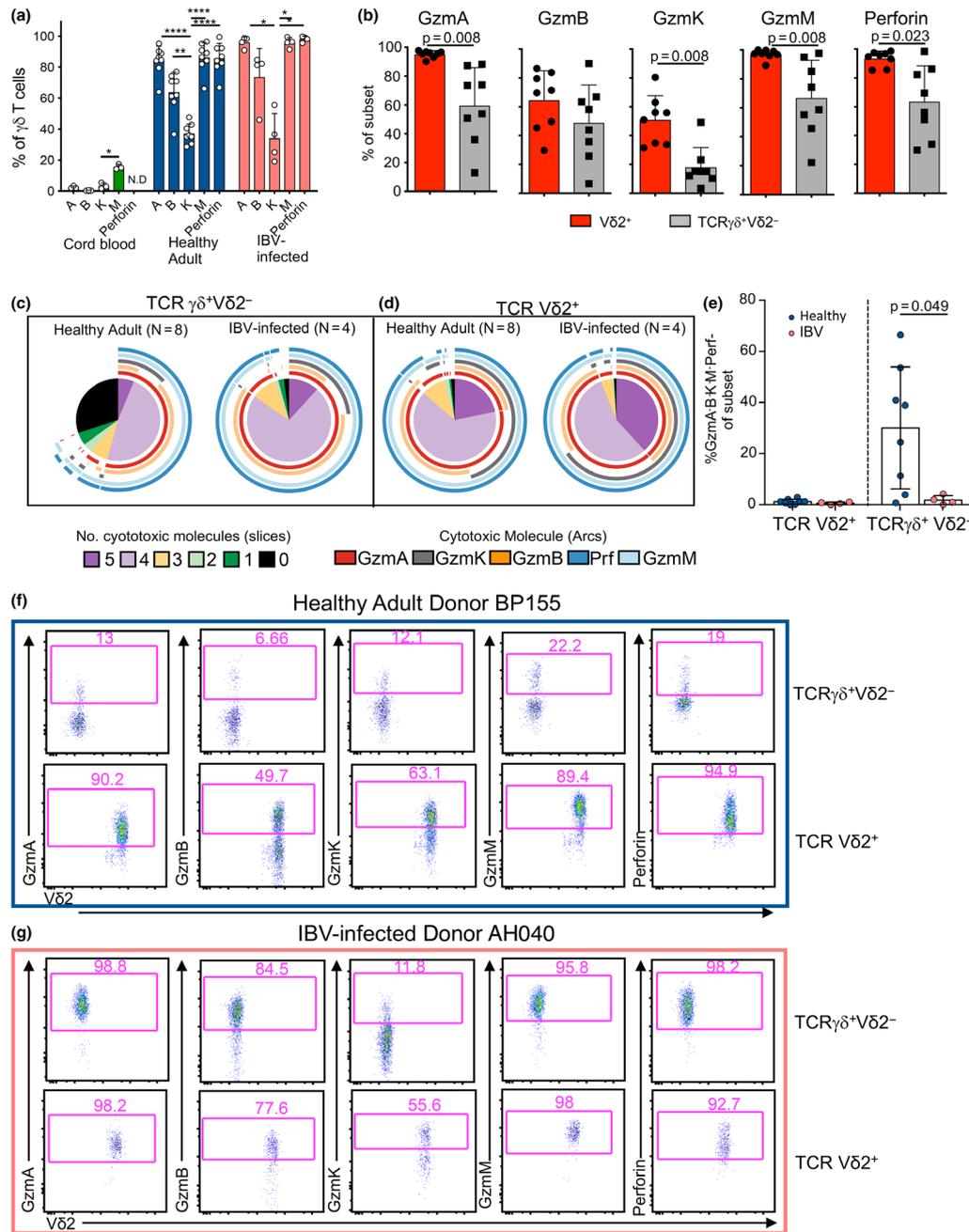


Figure 2. $V\delta 2^+$ $\gamma\delta$ T cells display broadly cytotoxic profiles which persist in influenza B virus-infected donors. $TCR\gamma\delta^+CD3^+$ T cells within the cord blood (CB; $n = 3$), peripheral blood in healthy adults ($n = 8$) or influenza B virus (IBV)-infected donors ($n = 4$, where one donor has two timepoints post-infection), were identified directly *ex vivo*. **(a)** Total granzymes and perforin expression in total $\gamma\delta$ T cells from cord blood, healthy adult peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) and IBV-infected donors, ANOVA one-way. **(b)** Gzm A ($p = 0.008$), Gzm B, Gzm K ($P = 0.008$), Gzm M ($P = 0.008$) and perforin ($P = 0.023$) expression in $V\delta 2^+$ (red) and $V\delta 2^-$ (grey) subsets from PBMC in healthy adults ($n = 8$), Wilcoxon test. **(c,d)** Co-expression of cytotoxic molecules in **(c)** $V\delta 2^- TCR\gamma\delta^+$ and **(d)** $V\delta 2^+$ T cells from healthy ($n = 8$) and IBV-infected ($n = 4$) adult donors is depicted in the pie charts. The segments correspond to the number of co-expressed cytotoxic molecules, and the cytotoxic molecule is specified by the arcs. Pie charts were generated with Pestle and SPICE software.³⁹ **(e)** Shown is the proportion of $V\delta 2^+$ and $V\delta 2^- TCR\gamma\delta^+$ cells not expressing Gzms A, B, K, M and perforin in healthy ($n = 8$) and IBV-infected ($n = 4$) adult donors. $P = 0.049$, Mann–Whitney test. **(f, g)** Representative FACS plots of intracellular Gzm A, B, K, M and perforin staining in $V\delta 2^+$ or $V\delta 2^- TCR\gamma\delta^+$ T cells from **(f)** healthy adult and **(g)** IBV-infected donor PBMC.

V γ 4, V γ 5, V γ 8, V γ 9 and V γ 10; Figure 4c, Supplementary table 5), suggesting that IFN γ ⁺ cells were indeed antigen-responsive. The majority of V γ 9V δ 2 TCRs had JP*01 at J-junctions, characteristic of the previously described phosphoantigen-reactive TCRs (Supplementary figure 5). Analyses of the CDR3 δ region showed the conserved hydrophobic amino acid at position 97 (Supplementary table 5), as in phosphoantigen-reactive TCRs (L, V, I, A and M).²⁴ We speculate that in our system, IAV infection may upregulate phosphoantigen metabolites, given the similarities of the CDR3 region with phosphoantigen-reactive $\gamma\delta$ TCRs.

Thus, the $\gamma\delta$ TCR profiles for IFN- γ -producing T cells stimulated with IAV-infected lung epithelial cells were characterised by a bias in γ 9 δ 2 TCR usage, and whether these TCRs are present across the human lifespan is unknown.

Differential TCR usage and pairing of $\gamma\delta$ chains across the human lifespan

Although the V δ 2⁺ T cells were predominately found in peripheral adult blood, we sought to understand whether $\gamma\delta$ TCR repertoires across the human lifespan (though not within individuals) display signatures of antigen experience. Firstly, to understand how human $\gamma\delta$ T cells change with age and tissue compartmentalisation, we dissected directly *ex vivo* CD3⁺ TCR $\gamma\delta$ ⁺ T cells within the PBMCs of 29 healthy adult (AD) donors (18–59 years, median 33 years), 28 healthy elderly (ED) donors (\geq 60 years, median 75.3 years) and 16 CB samples (Figure 5a, Supplementary table 1). While the frequency of $\gamma\delta$ T cells was lower in CB (1.6% \pm 0.9), it significantly increased in healthy adult PBMCs (4.0% \pm 4.4, $P < 0.05$) and was variable (0.2–9.3%; mean of 3.7% \pm 4.6) in healthy elderly individuals (Figure 5b). $\gamma\delta$ T cells in human tissues [spleen (SP) and lymph nodes (LN)] showed a higher proportion in spleen (7.2% \pm 1.27) and were of lower frequency in LN (0.5% \pm 0.13), than those in adult peripheral blood (Figure 5b).

To define TCRs across the human lifespan, we used a recently established single-cell nested RT-PCR¹³ for unbiased, paired *ex vivo* analysis of γ and δ CDR3 sequences recovered from healthy donor PBMCs [CB ($n = 3$), AD ($n = 3$), ED ($n = 4$)] and tissues [SP ($n = 3$), lung (LG; $n = 3$), LN ($n = 2$); Supplementary figure 4]. In all, we analysed 467 paired $\gamma\delta$ TCR sequences, 309 from PBMCs and 158 from lymphoid and lung tissues (Supplementary

tables 3 and 4). In umbilical CB, we observed diverse V-region usage for both the V γ (V γ 2, V γ 3, V γ 4, V γ 5, V γ 8, V γ 9 and V γ 10) and V δ (V δ 1, V δ 2, V δ 3, V δ 4 and V δ 5) segments (Figure 5c, Supplementary figure 3A, Supplementary table 3). Strikingly, neonatal repertoires were polyclonal with unique CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ sequences found across different donors (Figure 5c Supplementary figure 6a, Supplementary table 3). Overall, V δ 1 could pair with diverse V γ segments (V γ 2–5, V γ 8 and V γ 10), while V δ 2 paired predominantly with V γ 9 (12–35%), and less commonly with V γ 3 (4–10%), V γ 4 in CB1, V γ 5 in CB2 and V γ 8 in CB3 (4%; Figure 5c). In contrast, the predominant TCR usage in adult $\gamma\delta$ T cells was V γ 9 paired with V δ 2 (mean 70.3%; Figure 5d, Supplementary figure 6b, Supplementary table 3), albeit with a high diversity of unique V γ and V δ CDR3 sequences (mean of clonotypes was 53 out of 53 V γ 9V δ 2 sequences; Supplementary table 3).

The CD3/TCR $\gamma\delta$ complex has been previously shown to segregate $\gamma\delta$ T cells into two subsets, TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{hi}/CD3^{lo} and TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{lo}/CD3^{hi} in ratio, with distinct effector functions between the populations.^{25,26} These phenotypes may reflect $\gamma\delta$ T-cell clonal expansion driven via TCR-mediated interactions with antigen.²⁶ As we know so little about these responses, we were particularly interested in probing our data sets for this parameter. Co-staining for CD3 and TCR $\gamma\delta$ identified both TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{lo}/CD3^{hi} and TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{hi}/CD3^{lo} populations in two out of four elderly individuals (ED1, ED14, Supplementary figure 8), while we did not observe segregated populations in the three CB and adult donors we analysed for TCR repertoires. Observed for ED1 and ED14, the majority of the $\gamma\delta$ T population expressing TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{lo}/CD3^{hi} cells had dominant V δ 1 usage (Figure 5e). This was converse to previous studies showing predominant V δ 2 usage in the TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{lo}/CD3^{hi} subset,²⁶ suggesting that the TCR γ ^{lo}/CD3^{hi} in the elderly may reflect recent TCR-dependent activation. The subset of $\gamma\delta$ T cells expressing TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{hi}/CD3^{lo} had the predominant usage of V δ 2 paired with V γ 2 (ED1, Figure 5e, Supplementary tables 3 and 4), where V δ 2 paired with V γ 9 or V δ 1 paired with V γ 4 (ED14, Figure 5e, Supplementary table 4, Supplementary figure 6c, Supplementary table 3). Furthermore, large clonal expansions were also observed in the both TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{hi}/CD3^{lo} and TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{lo}/CD3^{hi} subsets from the elderly. In ED1, both subsets had one repeated clone, each contributing 87% and 93% to the repertoire. ED14

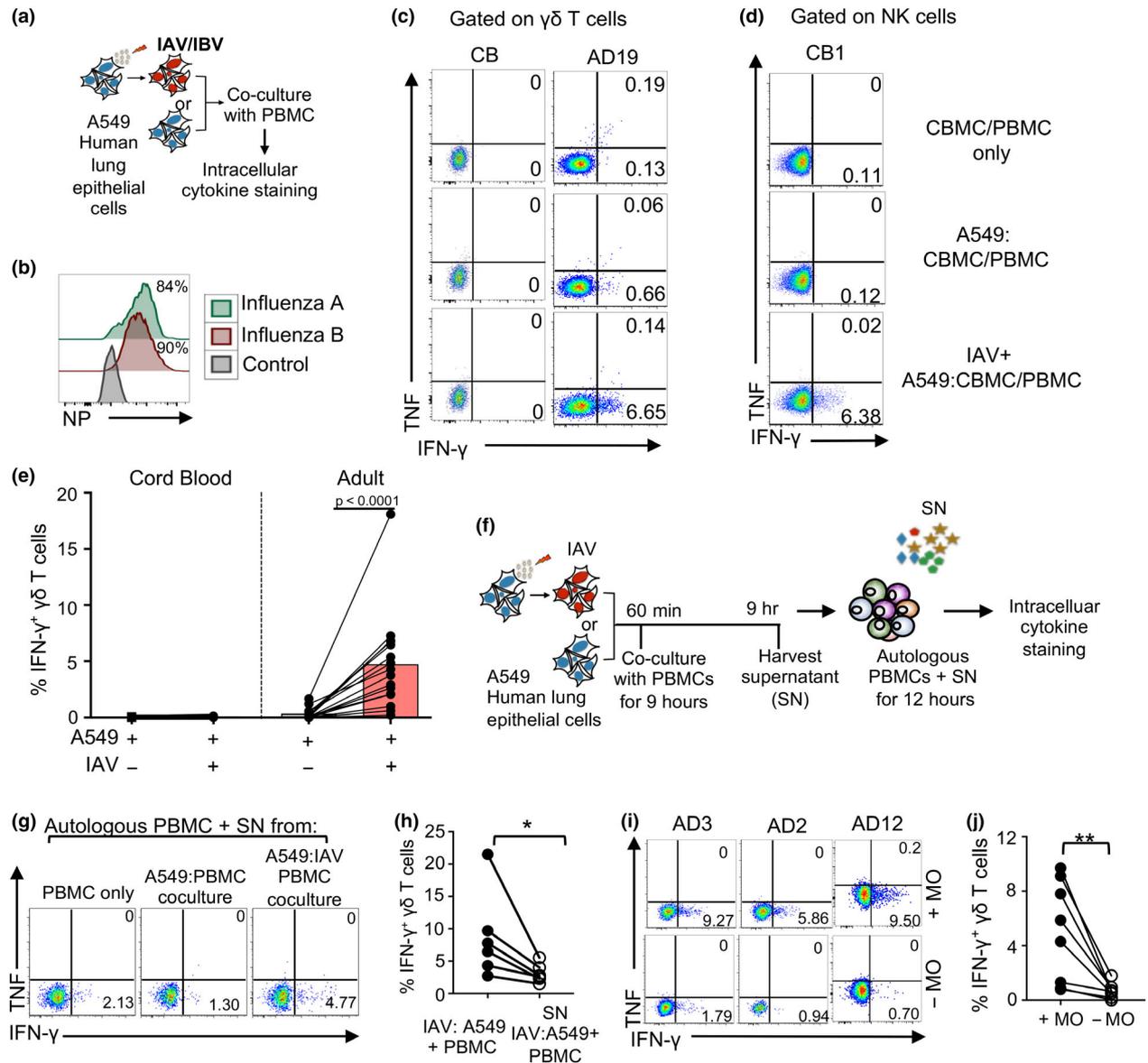


Figure 3. Influenza virus infection triggers IFN- γ upregulation in $\gamma\delta$ T cells which requires soluble factors and monocytes. **(a)** Schematic representation of an *in vitro* influenza-infected human lung epithelial cell (A549):peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) co-culture assay.²¹ A549 cells were infected with influenza A (IAV; A/Puerto Rico/8/1934 H1N1) or B (IBV; B/Massachusetts/02/2012) viruses (PR8, H1N1) for 1 h, washed and subsequently co-cultured with PBMCs for 9 h (in the presence of BFA for the last 6 h). Cytokines were measured via intracellular staining. **(b)** Influenza A virus and IBV nucleoprotein staining in A549 cells 10 h post-infection. **(c)** Representative FACS plots show IFN- γ production by $\gamma\delta$ T cells in cord blood (CB) and adult peripheral blood for 'PBMC only' controls (top), uninfected A549 cells (middle) and IAV-infected A549 cells (bottom). **(d)** IFN- γ responses of cord blood NK cells (CD56⁺ CD3⁻) when CB lymphocytes were co-cultured with IAV-infected A549 cells, uninfected A549 control and PBMC only control. **(e)** The frequency of IFN- γ ⁺ producing $\gamma\delta$ T cells in CB ($n = 3$) and adults is shown during IAV:A549 ($n = 16$ Adults) co-cultures. Background cytokine production by $\gamma\delta$ T cells from PBMC only was subtracted from co-cultures of PBMC with uninfected/virus-infected A549 cells. Mann-Whitney test was performed between A549 uninfected and A549 IAV-infected adults ($n = 16$), $P = < 0.0001$. **(f)** Schematics of supernatant transfer experiments. A549 cells were infected with IAV for 1 h prior to co-culture with PBMCs for 9 h (in the absence of BFA). Supernatant (SN) from uninfected or IAV-infected co-cultures were used to stimulate autologous PBMCs to measure IFN- γ production and TNF upregulation. **(g)** Representative FACS plots show IFN- γ and TNF production in adult peripheral blood $\gamma\delta$ T cells during SN transfer and summarised in **(h)** ($n = 6$). Wilcoxon test, * $P < 0.05$. **(i)** Representative FACS plots show IFN- γ and TNF production after monocyte depletion from PBMC in an *in vitro* influenza-infected A549 assay and summarised in **(j)** ($n = 8$). Wilcoxon test, ** $P < 0.01$.

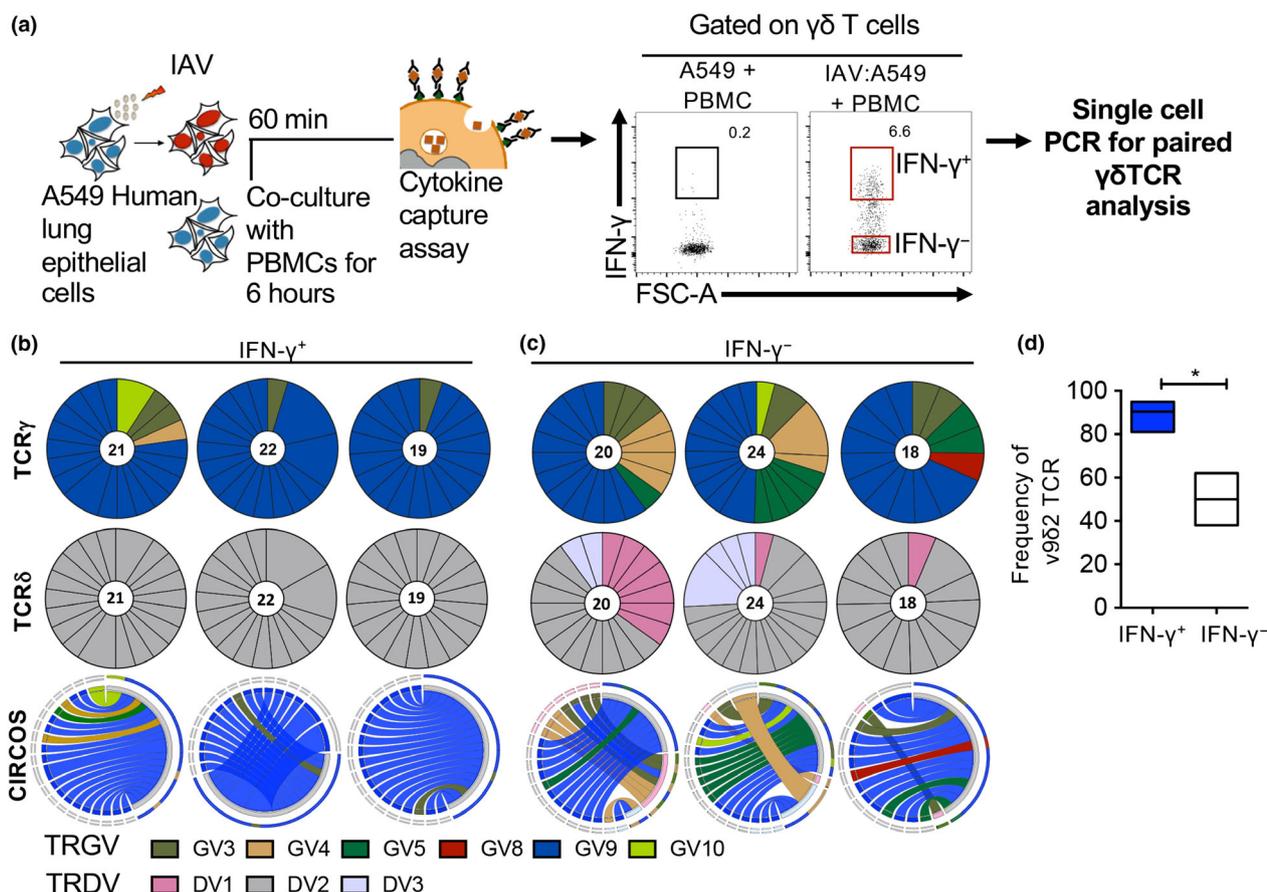


Figure 4. Dominance of the $\gamma 9\delta 2$ T-cell subset within IFN- γ producers after *in vitro* influenza infection. **(a)** Schematic representation of IFN- γ secretion assay was performed after *in vitro* influenza A (IAV)-infected A549 cells were co-cultured with peripheral blood mononuclear cell for 6 h. For single-cell sorting and RT-PCR analysis, for paired $\gamma\delta$ TCRs, IFN- γ secretion assay was used as a readout of influenza-reactive $\gamma\delta$ T cells. **(b, c)** $V\gamma$ (top) and $V\delta$ (bottom) usage in **(b)** IFN- γ^+ and **(c)** IFN- γ^- $\gamma\delta$ T cells is shown, with each segment representing a unique CDR3 region and each colour marking a specific subset of TRGV or TRDV gene usage. Circos plots (lower panel) of frequencies of $V\gamma$ -J and $V\delta$ -J usage in paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ sequences are shown for IFN- γ^+ and IFN- γ^- $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Each segment represents a unique clone, and segment thickness corresponds to frequency. **(d)** Frequency of $\gamma 9\delta 2$ TCRs within IFN- γ^+ $\gamma\delta$ T cells is higher than within IFN- γ^- $\gamma\delta$ T cells after IAV-A549 co-culture (Mann-Whitney test; $*P < 0.05$).

had two largely expanded clonotypes in the TCR $\gamma^{\delta^{\text{hi}}}$ /CD3 $^{\text{lo}}$ population and one large clonotype in TCR $\gamma^{\delta^{\text{lo}}}$ /CD3 $^{\text{hi}}$ subset, representing 32% and 72% of the total repertoire (Supplementary tables 3 and 4, Figure 5e, Supplementary figure 6c). In the remaining two elderly donors (ED4, 5), preferential $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ pairing and large clonal expansions of private $\gamma\delta$ clonotypes were observed (Figure 5e, Supplementary table 4, Supplementary figure 6c, Supplementary table 3), suggesting narrowing of the TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoire. Together, these data suggest that large clonal expansions of particular $\gamma\delta$ T-cell clonotypes with ageing and the TCR $\gamma^{\delta^{\text{lo}}}$ /CD3 $^{\text{hi}}$ $\gamma\delta$ T-cell populations found in the elderly are most likely to reflect the expansion of a $V\delta 1$ repertoire in response to *in vivo* stimuli.

We analysed the CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ length distribution at the amino acid (aa) level (Supplementary figure 69) to identify further signatures of antigen experience in the elderly as suggested by their expanded clonotypes. In contrast to neonates and adults with CDR3 length characterised by a normal distribution (Supplementary figure 9a, b), $\gamma\delta$ T cells in the elderly showed profound perturbations and a non-normal distribution with the CDR3 δ length ranging from 11 to 28 aa and CDR3 γ length ranging from 9 to 17 aa (Supplementary figure 9c), coinciding with accumulation of clonal expansions of $\gamma\delta$ T cells during ageing, as found for TCR $\alpha\beta$ clonotypes.^{27,28}

Thus, paired $\gamma\delta$ TCR analyses indicate that the alterations in TCR $\gamma\delta$ segment usage and $\gamma\delta$

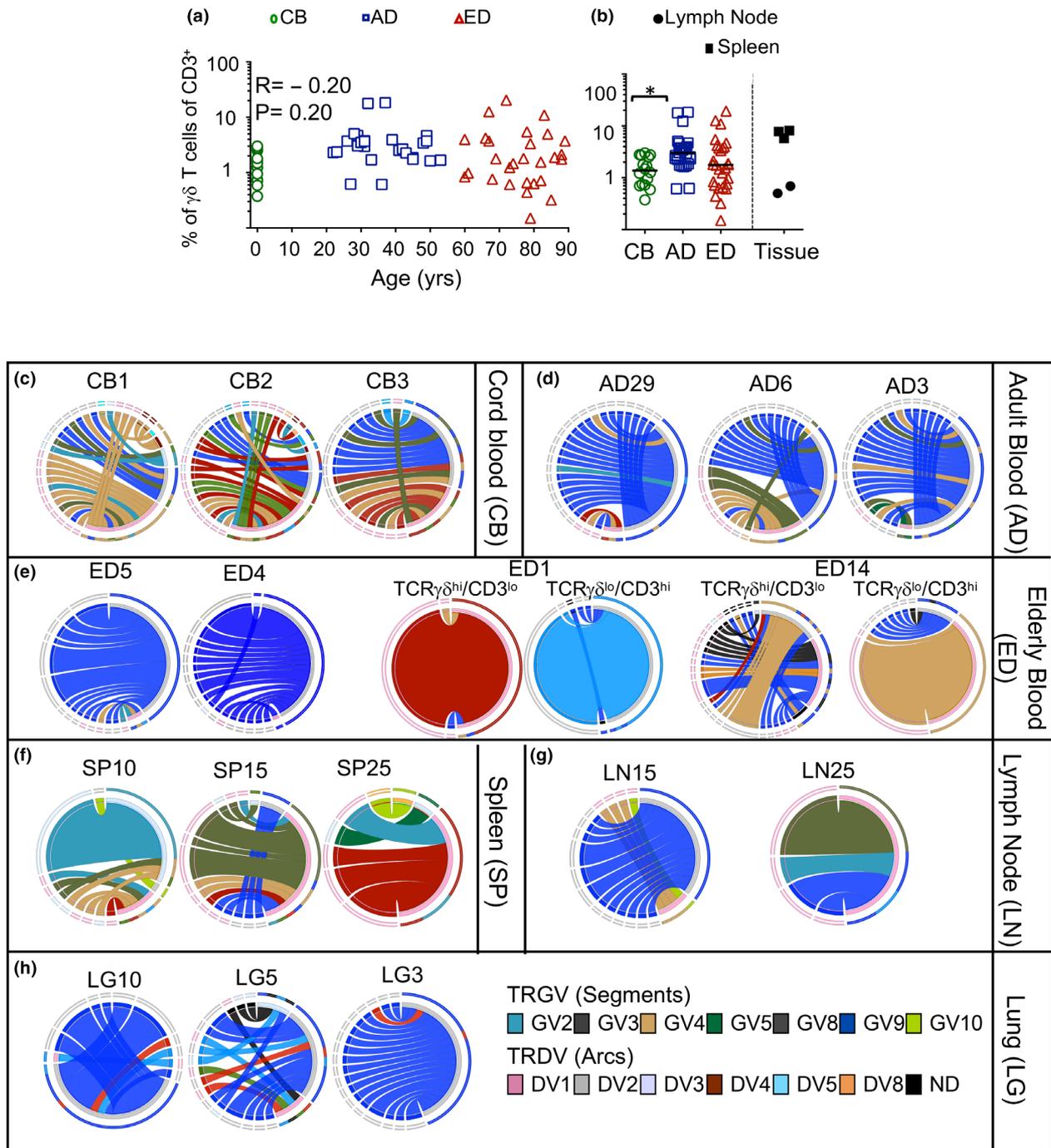


Figure 5. CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ composition and diversity are shaped by age and tissue localisation **(a, b)** The frequency and CD3 expression of human $\gamma\delta$ T cells differs with age. $\text{TCR}\gamma^{\delta+}\text{CD3}^+$ T cells within the cord blood (CB; $n = 16$) or peripheral blood in adults (AD; $n = 26$) or elderly donors (ED; $n = 24$) and tissues (SP and LN) were identified directly *ex vivo*. T-cell frequencies in **(a)** representative donors or **(b)** across individual cord blood, adult and elderly adult donors are shown. The correlation between the % frequency of $\gamma\delta^+\text{CD3}^+$ T cell and age was assessed using the Spearman rank test. **(c–h)** Circos plots of frequencies of V γ -J and V δ -J usage in paired $\text{TCR}\gamma\delta$ sequences are shown for **(c)** CB, **(d)** AD, **(e)** ED, **(f)** SP, **(g)** LN ($n = 2$) and **(h)** LG ($n = 3$ each, respectively, unless specified). **(e)** In selected donors, $\gamma\delta$ TCR clonotypes were dissected based on the ratio of $\gamma\delta\text{TCR}$ and the CD3 complex, $\gamma\delta\text{TCR}^{\text{lo}}/\text{CD3}$ and $\gamma\delta\text{TCR}^{\text{hi}}/\text{CD3}$ populations.⁴⁰ Each segment represents a unique clone, the segment colour corresponds to the TRGV gene usage, and the thickness corresponds to frequency. The coloured arcs represent the TRDV usage. Circos plots were generated with the circos software package.⁴¹ Annotated Circos plots are shown in Supplementary figure 7.

pairing occur during human lifespan may underlie differential functional potential and/or antigen experience for human $\gamma\delta$ T cells.

Diverse $\gamma\delta$ segment usage and large clonal expansions in human lymphoid and peripheral tissue TCRs

As the TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoire can be thought to be dictated by antigen recognition at different anatomical sites and the paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ composition in human lymphoid and peripheral tissues is unknown, we performed *ex vivo* analysis of paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoire in human SP, LN and LG. Spleen25 and LN25 were derived from BD25 donor with confirmed influenza disease, and SP15 and LN15 were obtained from the clinically normal BD15 donor. In two donors, the dominant V δ 1 was observed in spleen and in the LN of LN25 (Figure 5f, g). Paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ analyses in SPs ($n = 3$) and LNs ($n = 2$) showed intra-donor variations in both variable gene usages, with the dominant $\gamma\delta$ pairing being γ 2 δ 3 (SP10), γ 8 δ 1 (SP15) and γ 3 δ 1 (SP25) for spleen, γ 9 δ 2 (LN15) and γ 5 δ 1 (LN25) for LN s, and γ 9 δ 2 for all lungs, respectively (Figure 5f, h). A single clone was found to be shared between the LN and SP in influenza-infected donor BD25 (Supplementary table 5), and this was not evident in the clinically normal donor BD15 with paired LN and SP analyses. It is thus tempting to speculate that this TCR $\gamma\delta$ clone might be influenza-specific. Interestingly, in the lung tissue recovered from all three donors, the TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoires were dominated by γ 9 δ 2 clones across all LG donors.

Akin to elderly donor TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoires, large clonal expansions were observed in 2 LN donors (LN25, LN15 at 70% and 34% of repertoire), three spleen donors (SP10, SP15 and SP25 at 22%, 57% and 94% of repertoire) and three lung donors (LG10, LG3 and LG5 at 68%, 20% and 22% of repertoire; Supplementary table 4). Strikingly, in these donors, cumulative analyses of TCR $\gamma\delta$ CDR3s in the respective tissues also demonstrated a non-normal distribution, with the dominant CDR3 lengths within individuals being: 9 aa and 17 aa (SP), 7 aa and 18 aa (LN), and 12 aa and 17 aa (LG) for γ and δ TCR chains (Supplementary figure 9d–f). This suggests that skewing of CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ profiles in lymphoid and lung tissues is most likely to reflect the presence of substantially expanded clonotypes, the profile found consistently for the elderly $\gamma\delta$ TCRs in peripheral blood.

Together, our analyses of TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoire and CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ distribution indicate that $\gamma\delta$ T cells exhibit a compartmentalised structure dependent on age and anatomical location.

Shared features of healthy and influenza virus-reactive $\gamma\delta$ T cells and analysis of the public CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ sequences across different ages and tissue compartments

With a total of 467 TCR γ sequences across different age groups and lymphoid and lung tissues, we analysed shared features within the CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ repertoires. We first probed our blood data set for the canonical V γ 9 public CDR3 γ -CALWEVQELGKKIKVF,²⁹ which was found in all the adult donors (at 8–16%) as well as CB2 (at 4%), ED4 (at 4%), and in the TCR $\gamma\delta$ ^{lo}/CD3^{hi} subset of ED14 (at 12%; Supplementary table 7). Our pairing analysis for the TCR $\gamma\delta$ chains shows the public CDR3 γ -CALWEVQELGKKIKVF TCR has the capacity to pair with 13 different CDR3 γ -DV2 chains in blood, across age groups (Figure 6a, Supplementary table 8). Strikingly, all donors with influenza A virus-responsive $\gamma\delta$ T cells (Figure 4b) showed the presence of public CDR3 γ 9–CALWEVQELGKKIKVF sequences (at 10%, 24%, 10%) in IFN- γ ⁺ γ 9 δ 2 segments (Supplementary table 5). Furthermore, as in the adult blood, the canonical V γ 9 public was found in LG5 and LG10 (Figure 5h, Supplementary table 7). The prominence of public clones in 2/3 lung tissues (Figure 6b, pink segments) analysed for TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoire suggested its importance in human immune responses, where these clonotypes have the potential to contribute to antigen-driven responses in peripheral tissue.

Aiming to define possible governing motifs for CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ TCR recognition, and to determine whether IAV-reactive γ 9 δ 2⁺ cells had unique CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ motifs, we performed an in-depth analysis of amino acid usage at the CDR3 γ and CDR3 δ regions with common found aa lengths between healthy adult TCR $\gamma\delta$ and IFN- γ ⁺ γ 9 δ 2 TCRs. We used Seq2logo to generate aa sequence motifs which would allow us to identify potential differences between the CDR3 γ and CDR3 δ regions between healthy adult TCR $\gamma\delta$ and influenza-responsive IFN- γ ⁺- γ 9 δ 2 TCRs. Surprisingly, the pattern of aa usage presented no differences in the motifs between these two groups, thus indicating that healthy adult

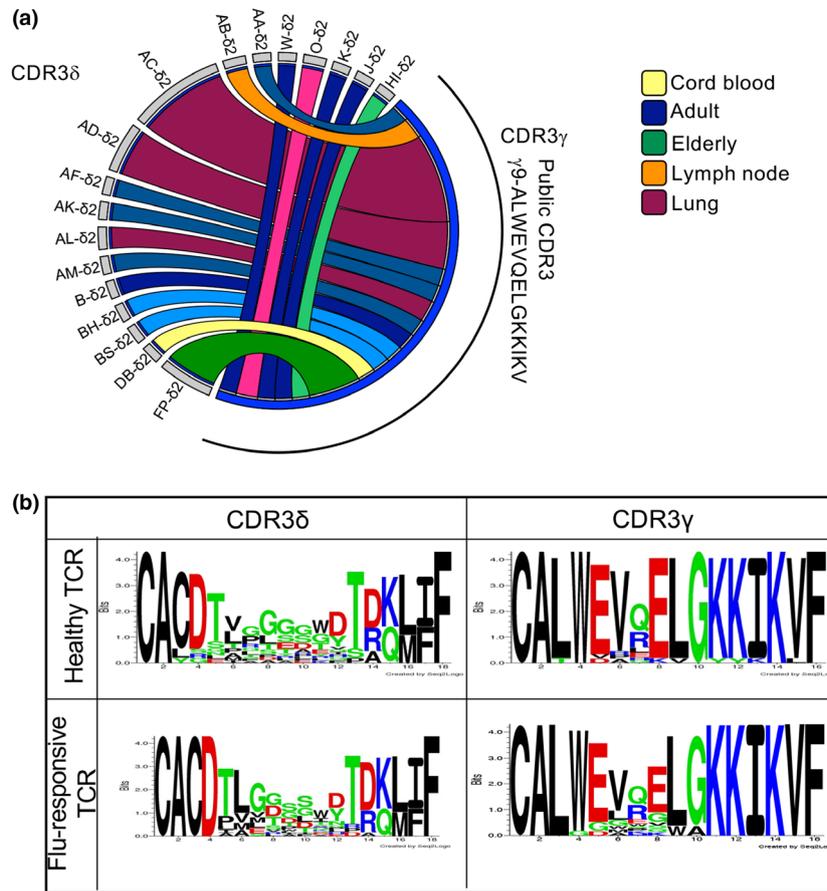


Figure 6. Public CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ sequences across different ages and tissue compartments. **(a)** A circos plot showing pairings of the public γ 9-CALWEVQELGKKIKV with diverse δ 2-chains is shown for different age groups (cord-yellow, adult-blue, elderly-green) in blood, lymphoid (orange) and lung tissues (pink), and donors are represented by shades of each distinct colour. The thickness of each segment correlates to the size of the clone. Codes of donors utilising public γ 9-chain pairings are specified in Supplementary table 7. **(b)** Amino acid enrichments within CDR3 γ and CDR3 δ regions of the most prevalent CDR3 length in healthy donors [14 amino acid (a.a.)] compared to the IFN- γ ⁺ $\gamma\delta$ TCRs (14a.a.). Graphics were generated using Seq2Logo (Denmark).

peripheral blood $\gamma\delta$ T cells are enriched with influenza-reactive $\gamma\delta$ T cells (Figure 6b).

Our data suggest that the majority of healthy adults are circulating $\gamma\delta$ T cells that have the potential to mediate anti-viral immunity against IAV infection, whereas lack of γ 9 δ 2 TCRs in some elderly donors and CB $\gamma\delta$ T cells could signify vulnerability to such viruses. Moreover, the presence of public γ 9 TCRs in lung tissues further supports their role in mediating anti-influenza immunity.

DISCUSSION

Given the immunomodulatory potential of $\gamma\delta$ T cells and the recent evidence on the importance of $\gamma\delta$ T cells and their specific TCRs in bacterial, viral infections and cancer,^{3,16,30,31} we dissected the

anti-viral potential of human $\gamma\delta$ T cells towards influenza-infected cells. We provide the first visual evidence of $\gamma\delta$ T cells killing influenza-infected targets and show very similar features of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell-mediated killing to those previously reported for human CD8⁺ T cells.^{17,18} The synapse dwell time of T cells with their targets is indicative of the efficiency of cytotoxicity, and we report here for the first time that $\gamma\delta$ T cells are capable of forming a functional immune synapse and inducing apoptosis of infected target cells with an equivalent efficiency to CD8⁺ T cells and NK cells. It is also worth noting that we did not see any PI uptake into the $\gamma\delta$ T effector T cells themselves, indicating that perforin delivery was unidirectional and that $\gamma\delta$ T cells did not undergo any cell death themselves as a result of cytotoxicity of targets.

Interestingly, the rate of degranulation was slower than has been observed in CD8⁺ T cells, potentially highlighting differences in signalling thresholds to induce cytotoxicity. In previous studies, granule recruitment in both CD4⁺ T cells, and in CD8⁺ T cells with CD8 blockade, has been shown to release cytotoxic granules more slowly than CD8⁺ T cells,³² shown to be due to weaker recruitment of the microtubule-organising centre to the synaptic membrane. In a similar study, altered peptide ligands were used in a CD8⁺ T-cell system to show that peptide interaction strength can determine the early signalling kinetics for degranulation and cytotoxicity.³³ Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that the $\gamma\delta$ T-cell signalling may be of a lower affinity threshold than cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells and will be the focus of future studies.

T cells also displayed highly polyclototoxic profiles in patients infected with influenza viruses *ex vivo* and produced IFN- γ upon co-culture with influenza-infected epithelial cells *in vitro*. Our in-depth dissection of the human TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoires compared key TCR $\gamma\delta$ signatures across different ages, tissues and following influenza virus infection. A detailed understanding of human $\gamma\delta$ T cells is important as it is increasingly evident that TCR $\gamma\delta$ ⁺ sets in peripheral tissues are distinct from those found in peripheral blood.³⁴ Defining human $\gamma\delta$ T cells according to their paired $\gamma\delta$ TCRs, rather than just single γ - or δ -chains, allows us to probe questions concerning the sharing of TCR signatures between individuals, the issue of clonality within individuals and (in the absence of knowing the inducing antigen) questions related to antigen specificity.

Utilising a single-cell multiplex nested RT-PCR to define paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ signatures for lymphocytes recovered directly *ex vivo*, we were able to develop a better understanding of how the $\gamma\delta$ TCR repertoire may change throughout the course of life. In this analysis, we were not, of course, able to do longitudinal studies within the same individuals, but there are clear patterns associated with the ageing process. The greatest degree of TCR $\gamma\delta$ gene segment diversity was found for CB and for spleen samples obtained from donors of different ages. The lack of repeated TCR $\gamma\delta$ clonotypes was particularly striking for CB, suggesting that these T cells may be naïve and have not undergone clonal expansion. Previously, from single-cell analyses, the diversity in the CB TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoire was deemed comparable to adults, as these studies were focused on V δ 2⁺ $\gamma\delta$ T cells, and the preferential pairing was

shown with V γ 9⁺¹⁶. In adults, we found that $\gamma\delta$ T-cell TCR diversity was also strongly biased towards the γ 9 δ 2 gene, with fewer alternative $\gamma\delta$ gene segment pairings compared to CB and splenic tissues. Clonotypic analysis, however, demonstrated high levels of diversity within adult blood γ 9 δ 2 TCRs, with a minimal number of repeated TCR $\gamma\delta$ clonotypes. An intriguing divergence between CB and adult peripheral blood lymphocytes (PBLs) was the prevalence of J γ *P, a focused CDR3 length of 14 aa and a conserved hydrophobic amino acid at position 97 of the CDR3 γ with age. This TCR signature has previously been defined for $\gamma\delta$ T-cell recognition of phosphoantigen,³⁵ supporting the idea that the V γ 9⁺V δ 2⁺ T cells in the PBL set are clonally expanded by phosphoantigen exposure. Another suggested driver of $\gamma\delta$ T cells is butyrophilin gene products of 'self' origin,³⁶ but the responding T cells do not utilise γ 9 δ 2 and are found mainly in tissue sites. Overall, though, there remains a general deficit in our understanding of what stimulates $\gamma\delta$ T cells.

Similar to clonal expansions found for conventional CD8⁺ TCR $\alpha\beta$ T cells in the elderly,²⁸ large $\gamma\delta$ TCR⁺ clones were prevalent in older, healthy people, a situation found for T cells that did, or did not, utilise the normally (in younger adults) prominent γ 9 δ 2 TCR pairing. In fact, some older people had few, if any, γ 9 δ 2TCR⁺ cells within the generally increased (with age) $\gamma\delta$ T-cell population, likely reflecting that an individual's history of 'antigen challenge' through life shapes the spectrum $\gamma\delta$ T-cell clonal diversity. Such clonal expansions led to a non-normal distribution and distinct CDR3 $\gamma\delta$ lengths across different elderly donors. This is the first report of clonal expansions of paired $\gamma\delta$ TCRs in elderly adults, with clonal divergence often being associated with differences between the ratio of cell surface expressed TCR $\gamma\delta$ and CD3.^{25,26}

Our single-cell $\gamma\delta$ TCR dissection also demonstrated that the public V γ 9 CDR3 γ -CALWEVQELGKKIVF and its variants show evidence of extreme plasticity. Although this public V γ 9 has been described previously,¹⁶ its capacity to pair with ~50 different CDR3 δ chains for all donors, ages and sampling sites is a new finding. This finding has potential implications for targeting the public TCR γ in clinical settings perhaps, and as we go forward to analyse disease states, it will be of substantial interest to determine whether the prominence of particular pairing correlates with different infections. However, further studies are

required to understand whether there are any functional differences between each distinct δ pairing with the public V γ 9 TCR.

In human tissues, apart from the γ 9 δ 2 TCR signatures that are prominent for PBLs, we found a much broader range of $\gamma\delta$ segments that were unique to CB. In general, the $\gamma\delta$ T cells recovered from the lung reflected the γ 9 δ 2 dominance characteristic of the PBLs. Conversely, $\gamma\delta$ T cells in across three spleens and one lymph node (LN25) donor consisted of $\gamma\delta$ TCR pairs found in CB. However, at the clonal level, $\gamma\delta$ TCRs within tissues differed to those within cord or adult blood, in that they were characterised by large clonal expansions. Perhaps these T cells are being driven by local antigen exposure, as suggested by the selective accumulation of δ 1⁺ for $\gamma\delta$ T cells (versus a δ 2 PBL signature) obtained by bronchoscopy following airway challenge with tetanus toxoid.³⁷ Alternatively, this could also reflect selective recruitment.

Our paired chain $\gamma\delta$ TCR repertoire analysis further suggests that the prominent γ 9 δ 2TCR⁺ sets may be directly involved in influenza-mediated immunity. The evidence for this is as follows: (1) the TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoire found for influenza virus-stimulated and cultured IFN- γ -producing $\gamma\delta$ T cells displays significantly increased usage of γ 9 δ 2 TCRs (80%); (2) the same TCR $\gamma\delta$ clonotypes are found between and within donors following this influenza A virus challenge; (3) the $\gamma\delta$ set from CB and an elderly donor who lacked γ 9 δ 2 TCRs did not express any IFN- γ following *in vitro* challenge with influenza-infected epithelial cells.

Collectively, our study provides evidence that $\gamma\delta$ T cells and their corresponding TCR $\gamma\delta$ repertoires can be shaped by age, localisation and viral exposures. Harnessing $\gamma\delta$ T-cell immunity to restrict pathogen growth and promote host recovery and/or tissue healing merits further rigorous analysis as we go forward to analyse disease states and probe possible vaccination and immunotherapy strategies.

METHODS

Human peripheral blood, cord blood and tissues

Buffy packs from healthy donors were obtained from the Red Cross Blood Service (West Melbourne, Australia). Peripheral blood was obtained from healthy adults (age 18–

59 years) or elderly donors (age \geq 60 years), with informed written consent. Umbilical CB was obtained from Mercy Hospital for Women (Heidelberg, Australia). Influenza B virus infection was confirmed in three donors with nasal swabs which were PCR positive for IBV.³⁸ In donor AH040, two timepoints were available, D7 and D30 post-disease onset. Human tissues (spleens, LNs, lungs) were obtained from deceased organ donors, brain dead (BD) or donation after cardiac death following the family's consent. Spleens and LNs were received from Donatelife Victoria at the time of organ harvest for clinical transplantation. Lung tissues were from the Alfred Hospital's Lung Tissue Biobank. Written informed consent and release of organs for research was obtained with approval from the Australian Blood Cross Blood Service ethics (ID 2015#8). The study was approved by the University of Melbourne Human Ethics Committee (ID 1443389.3 and 1443540), Mercy Health Human Research Ethics Committee (ID R14/25) and the Alfred Hospital (ID #280/14). Experimental work was performed according to the Australian National Health and Medical Research Council Code of Practice. Donor demographics are detailed in Supplementary table 1.

Mononuclear cell isolation

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells were isolated from peripheral blood or CB by density gradient centrifugation over Ficoll-Paque (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK). Cells were stored in liquid nitrogen (LN2). Tissue samples were maintained in cold PBS and processed within 18 h of organ procurement. Spleen tissues were minced and dissociated into single-cell suspensions by passing through a 70 μ m sieve. LNs and lung tissues were minced and subjected to enzymatic digestion in RP-2 media (KDS-RPMI + 2% FCS) containing Collagenase III (1 mg mL⁻¹, Worthington, OH, USA) and DNase I (0.5 mg mL⁻¹; Roche, Basel, Switzerland). After 1-h digestion at 37°C, enzymatic digestion was inhibited by EDTA (0.01 mM), and digested tissue was passed through sieve and pelleted. Residual red blood cells were lysed with RBC lysis solution (0.168 M ammonium chloride, 0.01 mM EDTA and 12 mM sodium bicarbonate in MilliQ water, Castle hill, NSW, Australia). Cells were subsequently stored in liquid nitrogen.

Purification of human $\gamma\delta$ T cells and influenza A virus infection of THP-1 target cells

Sort-purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells were maintained at 10⁶ cells mL⁻¹ in RPMI 1640 medium (10% [vol/vol] heat-inactivated FCS, 2 mM L-glutamine, 10 mM Hepes, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 100 μ M nonessential amino acids and 50 μ M 2-ME) containing 10 ng mL⁻¹ IL-15 (PeproTech, Rocky Hill, NJ, USA) for 12–24 h before use for live cell confocal microscopy. Targets cells (THP-1) were infected with influenza A virus at MOI 5 in serum-free RPMI 1640 medium for 1 h at 37°C and 5% CO₂. After incubation, virus-infected THP-1 were washed twice with serum containing RPMI medium to neutralise free-floating viruses. THP-1 were seeded in 1 \times 10⁶ mL⁻¹ and incubated for 4–6 h at 37°C and 5% CO₂ before proceeding to live cell confocal microscopy.

Chromium release assays

THP-1 cells were infected with H1N1-PR8 influenza A virus at MOI 5 in serum-free RPMI 1640 medium for 1 h at 37°C and 5% CO₂. After incubation, virus-infected THP-1 were washed twice with serum containing RPMI medium to neutralise free-floating viruses. THP-1 were seeded in 1×10^6 mL⁻¹ and incubated for 4–6 h at 37°C and 5% CO₂ before proceeding to live cell confocal microscopy. Cytotoxicity was examined by labelling target cells with 100 μ Ci ⁵¹Cr for 90 min at 37°C before washing and adding effector cells serially diluted at various E:T ratios. Co-culture was incubated for 4 h, and then, the percentage of target cell lysis was calculated as $[100 \times (^{51}\text{Cr release from targets with effectors} - ^{51}\text{Cr release from targets alone}) / ^{51}\text{Cr release from targets with 1\% Triton X-100} - ^{51}\text{Cr release from targets alone}]$. The level of ⁵¹Cr release from targets alone did not exceed 10% of the total ⁵¹Cr release from targets with 1% Triton X-100.

Live cell confocal microscopy

Live cell microscopy was performed as described previously.¹⁹ Suspension target virus-infected and uninfected THP-1 cells were adhered to 8-chamber ibidi chamber slides 15 min before imaging by incubating in serum-free media at 37°C. $\gamma\delta$ T cells were labelled with fluo-4 (labelled for 15 min with 1 μ M fluo-4 and 0.02% [wt/vol] Pluronic F-127 carrier at 37°C/10% CO₂). Labelled $\gamma\delta$ T cells were added to chamber slides seeded with THP-1 in media containing 100 μ M PI. Chamber slides were mounted on a heated stage within a temperature-controlled chamber maintained at 37°C and constant CO₂ concentrations (5%) and infused using a gas incubation system with active gas mixer (The Brick; ibidi, Munich, Germany). Optical sections were acquired through the centre of the cells by sequential scans of fluo-4 (excitation 488 nm) and PI (excitation 561 nm) or brightfield/differential interference contrast on a TCS SP5 confocal microscope (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) using a 40 \times (NA 0.85) water objective and LAS AF software (Leica). For the 488 and 561 channels, the pinhole was set to 4.2 AU, giving a section thickness of 5 μ m and XY pixel size of 378.8 nm. Images were acquired at 6 or 7 frames min⁻¹. Image analysis was performed using LAS AF Lite software (Leica) or Fiji software (Dresden, Germany).

Flow cytometric analyses of $\gamma\delta$ T cells

Identification and phenotypic analysis of $\gamma\delta$ T cells was performed with the following anti-human monoclonal antibodies (all antibodies were derived from BD biosciences, CA unless indicated): α -CD3-PECF594 or AF700 (clone UCHT1), α -CD4-BV650 (clone OKT4; BioLegend, San Jose, CA, USA), α -CD8-BV605 or PerCPCy5.5 (clone SK1), α -pan TCR $\gamma\delta$ -FITC or PeCy7 (clone 2F11, clone B1), α -CD56-PeCy7 (NCAM16.2), α -CD27-AF700 (clone L128), α -CD14-APC-H7 (clone M ϕ P9), α -CD19-APC-H7 (clone HB19), α -CD45RA-APC (clone L48) and live/dead discrimination marker aqua (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR, USA). PBMCs were incubated with cell surface monoclonal antibodies for 30 min on ice. For intracellular staining, cells were first surface stained as described above, then washed with MACS

buffer (PBS, 0.5% BSA, 2 mM EDTA) fixed and permeabilised using the Cytotfix/Cytoperm Plus Fixation/Permeabilization Kit (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). Cells were intracellularly stained with α -IFN γ -V450 (clone B2) and α -TNF-AF700 or PE-Cy7 (clone 6401.1111) for 30 min on ice, then washed, and resuspended in MACS buffer. In selected experiments, after surface staining with the V δ 2 (clone B6; Biolegend), cells were fixed and permeabilised with the Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set according to the manufacturer's instructions (eBioscience, San Diego, CA, USA) and stained intracellularly with monoclonal antibodies for Gzm A (clone CB9, eBioscience), Gzm B (clone GB11), Gzm K (clone GBH69; eBioscience), Gzm M (clone 4B2G4; eBioscience) and perforin (clone B-D48; Biolegend). Samples were acquired on the BD LSR Fortessa with DIVA software version 6 (Ashland, OR, USA). Analyses were performed using FlowJo software version 9.8.3 (Tree Star, Ashland, OR, USA).

In vitro A549 influenza virus infection and PBMC co-culture assay

In vitro infection of the human lung epithelial A549 cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) was performed as previously described, and schematics of the assay are shown in Figure 3a.²¹ Briefly, A549 cells were cultured in RF10 media (RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% FCS, penicillin, streptomycin, and L-glutamine; Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY, USA, and MEM vitamin solution; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). A549 cells at > 95% confluency were infected with A/Puerto Rico/8/1934 H1N1 (PR8) or B/Massachusetts/02/2012 for 1 h at 37°C, 5% CO₂. Following incubation, the A549 monolayer was washed with RF10 and incubated with trypsin versene for 5 min at 37°C. Single-cell suspensions of infected or uninfected A549 cells were then co-cultured with PBMCs (T: E of 1:5) in a 96-well plates for total of 10 h at 37°C, 5% CO₂. Brefeldin A Solution (BFA, BD, San Diego, CA, USA) was added to after 3 h of co-culture. After 10 h of incubation, cells were subjected to intracellular cytokine staining.

PBMC activation by supernatant transfer and monocyte depletion

Supernatant transfers were used to test whether any soluble factors in the IAV-infected A549/PBMC co-culture system could induce anti-viral activity in $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Supernatants collected from the virus-infected and uninfected A549/PBMC 10 h co-cultures were transferred to autologous PBMCs and further incubated for 12 h (Figure 3f). In selected experiments, CD14⁺ monocytes were depleted from PBMC using CD14 magnetic bead (Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) prior to A549/PBMC co-culture to assess the role of monocytes in activating $\gamma\delta$ T cells during IAV infection.

Paired TCR $\gamma\delta$ analyses at the single-cell level of *In vitro* influenza virus-stimulated IFN- γ ⁺ $\gamma\delta$ T cells

Donor PBMCs were stimulated by co-culturing with PR8 (H1N1) influenza virus-infected A549 cells for 6 h without

the addition of protein transport inhibitors. The co-cultured cells were subsequently stained with the IFN- γ Secretion Assay–Detection Kit (PE; Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA, USA), according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were stained with additional surface markers, α -CD3, α -pan TCR $\gamma\delta$, α -CD14, α -CD19 and live/dead aqua. Single-cell sorting of IFN- γ -producing or non-producing $\gamma\delta$ T cells from A549/PBMC co-cultures was performed, as above (Figure 4a).²³

Data and statistical analysis

Graphical displays and statistical analyses were performed using Prism GraphPad software, version 7 (La Jolla, CA, USA). Mann–Whitney test was used for comparison between two groups, two-way ANOVA for multiple comparisons, Spearman rank test for correlation, and non-linear regression for CDR3 lengths. Statistical significance described as follows: * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$ and *** $P < 0.001$. Pestle and SPICE software version 1.8 and 5, respectively, was used to analyse co-expression of granzymes and perforin.³⁹

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Immunoid facility for FACS sorting and Ms S Gonzalez for technical assistance. The clinical research midwives G Christophers, G Pell, and R Murdoch for sample collection; and the Obstetrics and Midwifery staff of the Mercy Hospital for Women for their co-operation. The Australian National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) NHMRC Program Grant (1071916) to KK supported this work. ML is supported by a Research Fellowship from the Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology (University of Melbourne) and a Faculty Fellowship from the University of Melbourne. SS was a recipient Victoria India Doctoral Scholarship and Melbourne International Fee Remission Scholarship, University of Melbourne. MK is a recipient of Melbourne International Research Scholarship and Melbourne International Fee Remission Scholarship. MRJ is a NHMRC CDA Research Fellow. KK is a NHMRC Senior Research Level B Fellow (#1102792).

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Supporting Information

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.



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